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ABSTRACT

This report summarizes the training workshop on the Evaluation of Asian Educational Credentials recommendations and findings. This report is an attempt to extract from the total workshop those points that are most relevant to the problem of evaluating credentials from India, Japan, the Philippines and Taiwan. For each of the four countries the following information is given: overview of the educational system, special problems, quality factors, grading system, recommendations and bibliography. The appendix includes workshop staff and participants. It is hoped that this report will be a useful tool for admission officers and foreign student advisors to help them evaluate Asian students' credentials. (Author/PG)

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THE EVALUATION OF ASIAN EDUCATIONAL CREDENTIALS: A WORKSHOP REPORT

INDIA

JAPAN

THE PHILIPPINES

TAIWAN

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THE EVALUATION OF ASIAN EDUCATIONAL CREDENTIALS: A WORKSHOP REPORT

INDIA, JAPAN, THE PHILIPPINES, TAIWAN

Edited By

Lee Wilcox

University of Minnesota

April, 1966

P R E F A C E

The idea for an Hawaii workshop on the evaluation of Asian credentials came about in late 1963. For some time, NAFSA had been promoting professional development opportunities for all segments of its membership, although focus was generally upon the foreign student adviser. At annual and regional conferences, foreign admissions officers would assemble with an overflow of mutual problems but they never had been able to join together for more than a day or two, and even then, without full preparation and participation of all concerned. NAFSA leadership agreed upon the potential value of a training workshop for those whose day-to-day responsibilities are to cope with the complexities of foreign educational documents from some of the countries which send the greatest numbers of students to the United States.

Meanwhile, in Honolulu, the newly-established Center for the Cultural and Technical Interchange between East and West was attempting to meet specialized training needs of mutual benefit to the peoples of Asia, the Pacific and the United States. A proposal was made by NAFSA to the Center's Institute for Technical Interchange to serve as locale and co-sponsor for the workshop.

NAFSA's proposal was accepted by the Center on the condition that some financial support be raised from interested foundations and corporations to supplement the Center's investment and to add breadth to the venture. Grants were secured from the Asia Foundation, the College Entrance Examination Board, and the Rama Watumull Fund, a private trust in Honolulu with particular interest in educational activities which include India. The American President Lines, as its gesture of cooperation, offered several free passages from California to Honolulu.

India, Japan, the Philippines, and Taiwan were selected for workshop coverage, since one-fourth of all foreign students in the United States come from these four areas. A combination of

twenty-two participants from among the NAFSA membership, resource persons selected for each of the four countries under scrutiny, and specialists from among East-West Center and University of Hawaii personnel would come together for two weeks in an intensive workshop format. The findings then would be shared with others involved in foreign student admissions work by means of a written report of the workshop, to be widely distributed via NAFSA and other professional organizations, and through regional workshops throughout the United States.

The East-West Center, through its efficient staff and facilities, proved to be an ideal locale for the Workshop, where the participants collectively developed the findings reported herewith. The directors are grateful to all who gave many hours and much talent to the fulfillment of the Workshop. May it serve as a stimulus to further training among those engaged in foreign admissions work.

Cliff Sjogren
A. Lee Zeigler

TABLE OF CONTENTS

		Page
INTRODUCTION		1
INDIA		3
I	Overview of the educational system	4
II	Special problems	7
III	Quality factors	8
IV	Grading system	10
V	Report of admission and placement practices	11
VI	Recommendations	13
VII	Bibliography	15
JAPAN		17
I	Overview of the educational system	18
II	Special problems	21
III	Quality factors	24
IV	Grading system	25
V	Recommendations	26
VI	Bibliography	33
PHILIPPINES		34
I	Overview of the educational system	35
II	Quality factors	37
III	Grading system	43
IV	Observations about certain Philippine colleges and universities	44
V	Recommendations	47
VI	Bibliography	52
TAIWAN		53
I	Overview of the educational system	54
II	Special problems	59
III	Quality factors	60
IV	Grading system	62
V	Recommendations	62
VI	Bibliography	66
APPENDIX		
I	Workshop staff	67
II	Workshop participants	68

I N T R O D U C T I O N

The Training Workshop on the Evaluation of Asian Educational Credentials was held at the Center for the Cultural and Technical Interchange between East and West (commonly referred to as the East-West Center) on the University of Hawaii campus from November 29 to December 10, 1965. This report summarizes the findings and recommendations of the workshop.

It would probably be useful to the reader's understanding of the report to know something of the workshop format and the manner in which the report has been prepared. Approximately two days were spent on each of the four countries covered in the workshop. Initial presentations on the country being considered were made by social scientists resident at the East-West Center or the University of Hawaii. These persons were either natives of the Asian country or Americans with extensive experience in that country. Their presentations provided a cultural-historical context within which the intensive study of the educational system and credentials could meaningfully develop.

The remainder of the two day sessions was under the general direction of the invited resource person.[1] He presented descriptive and qualitative information on the educational system and led discussion on the salient characteristics of, and special problems associated with, the educational credentials commonly received by American colleges. A set of individual case studies was then reviewed by teams of participants and further discussed in the total group. This discussion led to the development of a series of recommendations, by group concensus, for the handling of applications and credentials from each of the four countries. Both

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[1]Background speakers, resource persons, and participants are listed in the Appendix.

within the formal workshop arrangement and during unscheduled time, there was a dynamic give and take among the participants. Although difficult to relate, this interaction was a most valuable aspect of the workshop and had much to do with its success.

This report is an attempt to extract from the total workshop those points which are most relevant to the problem of evaluating credentials from India, Japan, the Philippines, and Taiwan. It does not attempt to cover all the issues raised in the workshop and moreover, it is obvious that an exhaustive study of these dynamic educational systems cannot be accomplished in two weeks. It should also be noted that the statements and recommendations do not necessarily carry the endorsement of the sponsoring and supporting organizations. Given these limitations, the report represents the best judgment of those participating in the workshop.

In a very real sense, each participant has contributed to the preparation of this report. All were involved in the formulation of the recommendations. Many assisted in the writing of the descriptive and qualitative information. Special mention should be made of those who took major responsibility for the country sections which follow: William Strain for India, Clyde Vroman for Japan, James Frey for the Philippines, and Robert Barendson for Taiwan.

It is hoped that this report will be as useful to admissions officers and foreign student advisers as the workshop was to those of us fortunate enough to have taken part.

Lee Wilcox

TABLE 1
SIMPLIFIED DIAGRAM OF INDIAN EDUCATION
EMPHASIZING MOST USUAL SEQUENCES

	Year of School	Typical Age	
Research Degrees	18 17		Ph D, D Litt, D Sc, etc., follow the master's but usually require no residence or classwork. Ordinarily they require registration, research, and examination but sometimes appear to be honorary degrees (D Litt and D Sc are more often honorary). M E, M Sc (Engr) and certain other master's in technological fields may be taken by coursework or as research degrees, usually 2 years or more after the bachelor's in the appropriate field. Prerequisites and programs have to be checked to determine level and content.
Higher Education Bachelor and Master	16	21	MA, M Sc, M Com, M Ed, LL B usually require 2 years after the first degree. B E and B Sc (Engr) require 3-5 years after Int. Sci. or Pre-Engr., sometimes after B Sc.
	15	20	B Ed and BT require 1 year after B A, B Sc or B Com. Also bachelor's degree honours sometimes requires 3 years after Intermediate.
	14 13	19 18	BA, B Sc and B Com usually end with grade 14. Their length depends on whether they start after grade 10 (SSC), grade 11 (HSC, PUE, etc.), or grade 12 (Intermediate, First-Year Arts, Sci., or Comm.).
Senior Secondary Incl. Intermediate or Equivalent	12	17	Intermediate, Pre-professional, Pre-engineering, 1st-year Arts, Sci., or Com. (new system), often taught in Univ. Required for Med., Engineering, and many professional schools.
	11	16	HSSC at end of Higher Secondary School, or Pre-university if taught in a university. Recommended to be taught in Sec. schools.
	10 9	15 14	SSC or SSLC after grade 10 was traditionally the end of Secondary and still is in many Indian systems. Records of graduate applicants still show this sequence.
Middle Sch. often part of Sec. or Primary	8 7 6 5	13 12 11 10	Middle schools sometimes exist separately but more often are part of a secondary or primary school. The division points differ in different states and districts. Grade 8 ends the period theoretically covered by compulsory education, not generally enforced.
Primary Typically 4 Years or More	4 3 2 1	9 8 7 6	Primary is usually 4 years, but may be longer, even may include the middle school period. In several states it begins at age 5 instead of age 6 and includes 5 years instead of 4. Grade numbering, at least in secondary is usually adjusted to end with grade 10 under the old system and grade 11 under the new.
		5	Organized Kindergartens are not numerous. Some states encourage regular school attendance beginning at age 5, see Primary above.

I N D I A [1]

I. OVERVIEW OF THE EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM

The accompanying chart illustrates the most salient features of the educational ladder followed in India by most university-bound students. It must, of course, be remembered that India is made up of 16 states, each of which is charged with organization and management of its own system of education, so that there are 16 separate and varying systems. The Central Government has, however, set up certain standards and programs which have received major financial support under the various five-year plans. This encouragement from the center has resulted in a very strong similarity among the 16 state systems. In comparing specific cases with the chart in Table 1, the admissions officer should keep in mind the following points:

A number of states permit or encourage students to enter school at age five. This results in a large number of cases in which the applicant has graduated from secondary school at an age earlier than the chart indicates.

The primary school may be as short as three years or as long as eight. The reason four years is emphasized on the chart is that in most of India there are four years of free education. After the fourth year, education is not available in all places (the situation varies, of course, but tends to be worse in rural areas). Students almost everywhere have to pay fees for study beyond the fourth grade.

The middle grades (sometimes called lower secondary) may be attached either to the secondary or the primary, or may be separately housed. In the basic schools--favored by government policy--the junior basic (a form of primary) is regularly five years and the senior basic (a form of lower secondary) is regularly three years.

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[1] Prepared by William Strain

Virtually all university-bound students proceed by way of the senior secondary school. Under the old system, still operating in many places, the senior secondary school ends with grade 10 and is followed by the Secondary School Certificate (SSC), also called the Secondary School Leaving Certificate (SSLC), examination. Under the new system, the senior secondary school includes grade 11 and leads to the Higher Secondary School Certificate (HSSC) examination.

A small minority of secondary students take terminal programs in technical, commercial, trade, or agricultural schools or in equivalent "streams" (or tracks) in multi-purpose high schools. There are teacher training programs in post-basic schools and in teacher training colleges that parallel the senior secondary. In post-basic schools, they begin with grade 9 and run one or two years. In other schools they may start as early as grade 9 or as late as grade 12 (11 is most typical) and last one, two, or three years. Most such programs do not point toward, or qualify for, university study in India and should not normally be accepted as preparation for university study in the United States.

In areas where the HSSC is not available, a holder of the SSC who wishes to qualify for attendance at an Indian university organized under the old plan would enter an Intermediate Course (this might be in the university or a secondary school) for two years. To bridge into a program organized under the new plan he would first take a one-year course leading to the Pre-university Examination (PUE), or University Previous Examination (UPE). Either of these is accepted as equivalent to the HSSC.

Holders of HSSC and persons who have passed PUE or UPE go directly into the new-type curricula for the BA, B Sc, and B Com, which may be earned in three years from that level. Those who want to enter medicine, engineering, and some of the other technologies, must complete the equivalent of Intermediate Science. To make this possible, the new plan offers holders of the HSSC and PUE a one-year science program which is usually called Pre-professional if it includes a biological science and leads into

medicine, or Pre-engineering if it emphasizes mathematics and leads into technological studies.

Completion of the Intermediate, Pre-professional or Pre-engineering course, or the first year of the new-plan Arts, Science, or Commerce degree course, may be rated chronologically comparable to the completion of the 12th grade in the United States.

Statements about the lengths of university degrees in India are often more confusing than they need to be. Nearly all the confusion is dispelled if one accounts for the different ways in which the bachelor's program may be attached to secondary programs on the one hand and master's programs on the other. The BA, B Sc, and B Com ordinarily extend four years beyond the SSC, three years beyond the HSSC, or two years beyond the Intermediate. Obviously all end at the same level. A few universities under the old plan had honours degrees that were a year longer than their pass degrees, but in changing to the new plan, some of these universities have dropped this arrangement. The end result is that most remaining honours degrees are now the same length as other degrees. The four universities which formerly gave the master's on passage of time have dropped that practice.

Holders of the BA, B Sc, or B Com who wish to teach in senior secondary schools continue in a university for an additional year and take a program consisting almost entirely of education courses and leading to a degree called B Ed or BT. Another year after this teacher's degree will usually suffice to gain the M Ed.

Most bachelor's degree programs in engineering and technology require the Intermediate Science or Pre-engineering examination for admission and, though there is some variation, tend to require four years for completion. This puts these degrees chronologically equal to the master's degrees named above and to the U.S. bachelor's. Indian master's degrees in engineering and technology usually require two further years and may be compared chronologically with master's degrees in the United States.

The Ph D in India is a research degree and does not usually

require any course work. Normally it is given only to the holder of a master's who has done research and a dissertation or other publication(s) under guidance of a qualified professor. Ordinarily the dissertation must be defended at a public examination. The D Litt and D Sc are also sometimes research degrees, but they are frequently given without formal examination, which makes them in such cases comparable to honorary degrees.

II. SPECIAL PROBLEMS

It is often difficult to get enough information on a particular case to determine the subject-matter covered and the level and quality of the work done by the applicant. Also the credentials submitted are likely to be of dubious authenticity by American standards. Some of these problems are covered in the section below entitled "Recommendations." Others will be briefly discussed here.

The Indian government is committing a high percentage of its resources to education, but will not for decades be able to supply the facilities, teachers, textbooks, etc., that are needed to bring education to the quality expected, or even to make it uniformly available in all parts of the country. Secondary schools in many places either teach no science or teach science without laboratory equipment. Many subjects even in middle and secondary school are taught by the lecture method, without textbooks. Most teachers in the primary and middle schools do not have university training, and only about two-thirds of the senior high school teachers hold the degrees and diplomas that are theoretically required.

At the university level, the expansion of enrollments has come so rapidly that institutions have difficulty even to maintain the standards of the past. The inertia of the system makes it difficult to update syllabi, select new textbooks, and otherwise modify and modernize the curriculum. Much of the work is taught without texts or library materials. Laboratory work tends to be traditional, sometimes quite out of touch with current science.

The examination system, which once unified and standardized Indian education, has now become a rigid straight-jacket. It freezes every course to a syllabus and a text (or texts) which custom almost prevents changing. To make matters worse, the kind of examinations given is of such a nature that the results are not really reliable for selection of the best students for further study. They do, however, have the effect--necessary in India--of reducing the number of students who reach higher levels (where they could not in any case be accommodated). And until some better selection device can be found, these examinations are the basic criteria on which U.S. admissions officers select Indian students.

III. QUALITY FACTORS

Much has been said about variations in the quality of the work done at different institutions in India. It is difficult to rate institutions objectively, especially without personal contact, and the number of institutions at both secondary and higher levels is much too great for anyone to know all of them intimately. About all that can be done with present information and the limited space available here, is to make a few comments about the various types of higher institutions.

One may suppose that the universities and technological institutes organized and supported directly by the central government have an advantage in quality over the state and private institutions, but this is not always the case. A person interested in the quality of an institution should also consider its history and purposes, the recent award of grants or other support from either Indian or non-Indian sources, and the policies under which the institution has been operated in the current decade or so. Some of these things can be ascertained by a little research, others are quite elusive. Additional points one may watch for clues of quality include the degrees of the professors and the numbers of graduate students in a given department.

The four "central universities" are Banaras Hindu University, founded in 1916; Aligarh Muslim University, 1921; Delhi University, 1922; and Visva-Bharati University, 1951. Each was founded for a different purpose in a different part of the country and for a different clientele. The first three are well-established major universities. Visva-Bharati is a highly specialized small institution.

There are several other central government institutions of specialized character, some of the best known being the Indian Institutes of Technology. These were opened at Kharagpur in 1951; Bombay, 1958: Madras, 1959: and Kanpur in 1960. U.S. funds and institutions have assisted Kharagpur and Kanpur. West Germany, UNESCO, and the USSR have contributed to some of them. The central government also supports a variety of research institutes and laboratories. The Agricultural University of the United Provinces at Port Nagar foreshadows a chain of Land-Grant-type institutions, being set up with U.S. assistance. Many evaluators will be influenced by the U.S. or other foreign cooperation in these new institutions almost as much as by the Indian government sponsorship.

Among the universities with recent founding dates are some that were made by division from old institutions that have had a good reputation for years. Such institutional antecedents should be kept in mind. Also a young institution may have modern ideas and a young ambitious faculty. Among old institutions, there are some that seem to be doing little to modernize their programs, facilities, and faculties. It may be hard to detect such a fault, but certainly size and age alone do not of themselves assure quality. Other things being equal, one may suppose that institutions that have worked in recent years to develop graduate facilities, teaching departments, libraries, laboratories, and well qualified faculty members, are probably more alert to the trend of the times. Such institutions are generally gaining strength and prestige.

IV. GRADING SYSTEM

Any effort to convert Indian examination grades to U.S. grades can be only partially successful. Indian teachers and professors use philosophies and grading practices that are different in many ways from the philosophies and grading practices used in the United States; particularly, they give little thought to "grading on the curve" and they seem to have less compunction about failing large numbers of students. In those cases where Indian grades are given in percent, it is fairly easy to divide the range of passing marks into the number of intervals (usually four) which are used in the American school making the comparison. But it is seldom possible to be sure that cutting points for the various grades have been fairly chosen.

If the Indian grades appear as 1st, 2nd, and 3rd class, the process is simpler, but results are about the same. For this situation the writer suggests that 1st Class be equated to A, 2nd Class to B, and 3rd Class to C. This produces only three passing grades, but can be defended, at least on degree examinations, by the fact that most U.S. colleges require a C average for graduation. Thus all U.S. degrees are given to students who average A, B, or C. Since Indian universities require 3rd Class for graduation, the use of A, B, and C for 1st, 2nd, and 3rd Class seems comparable. This interpretation does not imply, however, that a 3rd Class student is a good candidate for study in the U.S. (see Table 2 and Recommendation #9 for the relation of Indian grades to selection).

The Indian master's can be earned at most universities with a 3rd Class, but since U.S. universities tend to count the Indian master's as undergraduate work, the interpretation of 3rd Class as C is still appropriate. In applying the rule to secondary records, one may recall that U.S. high schools allow students to graduate with less than C average, but the number who graduate with such averages is small and very few of them are college

bound. The fact that many universities in the United States look on the C student in high school as inadequately prepared for college is consistent with the Indian practice of denying university admission to 3rd Class applicants.

V. REPORT OF ADMISSION AND PLACEMENT PRACTICES

At the close of the discussion a show of hands was requested in regard to the appropriate level of placement for candidates with various qualifications. Although it was intended to ask the opinion of the group concerning correct theoretical placement, it is quite likely that the votes of the participants reflected to some extent the practices of the 18 institutions they represent. Table 2 represents the ideas of the participants regarding the acceptability of applicants whose credentials show various Indian grades. Table 3 reflects ideas of the 18 voting participants regarding the placement level in a U.S. university of the holder of a given diploma or certificate.

TABLE 2

ACCEPTABLE INDIAN GRADES

Level of Admission Under Consideration	Lowest Acceptable Marks		
	1st Class	High 2nd Class	Second
Freshman candidates	4	10	4
Other undergraduates	3	11	4
Graduate candidates	4	8	6

TABLE 3

PLACEMENT LEVELS FOR VARIOUS CERTIFICATES AND DEGREES

Various Indian Certificates and Degrees	Deny Admiss.	Freshman	Undergraduate Credit in Semester Hours 1-30	31-60	61-90	Equate to Bach.	Equate to Master's
Secondary Sch. Certif.	17						
HSSC or PUE	13	3					
Certif. or Dip. or Licenciate for Elem. Teaching	12	3					
Inter Arts or Sci. or Pre-Profess. or Pre-Engr.		12	5				
BA				13	5		
B Sc			1	13	2		
B Com				15			
Bachelor Honours				4	9	2	
B Ed, BT				1	7	5	
B Engr, B Sc (Engr.)				1	1	14	
MA, M Sc, M Com						15	2
M Ed						15	
ME, M Sc (Engr.)						3	9
Ph D	e v a l u a t e o n a n i n d i v i d u a l b a s i s						

VI. RECOMMENDATIONS

1. Official records (original or copies of original records as certified by a school or government official) should be required for each examination the student has taken, beginning with the Higher Secondary School Certificate (HSSC), or its equivalent, for a student applying for freshman admission, and the Intermediate for a student applying for graduate admission. Mark sheets should show the subjects included in each examination, the maximum mark in each subject, the minimum mark for passing, the mark the student obtained, and the "Division" or "Class" he received. Except for the first year of the two-year BA, B Sc, and B Com examinations, there should be a mark sheet for each year of study. If there is a "gap" in the credentials, the reviewer should require the missing record or records--or make certain the student did not take an examination that year. (If a student fails in an examination, he may be reluctant to file an examination report). Copies of certificates and diplomas in addition to mark sheets should be required.
2. "Total" figures and percents on mark sheets should be checked for accuracy.
3. A syllabus, course sheet, university catalog, or a statement from the student about the content of each subject covered (e.g., Mathematics, Economics, Social Science, and the like) is desirable for the interpretation and evaluation of credentials.
4. An applicant for freshman admission should have completed at least the Intermediate, Pre-professional or Pre-engineering examination.
5. An applicant for graduate admission should have completed the B Engr, B Tech, B Sc (Engr), MA, M Sc, M Com, or M Ed. Some graduate schools will consider holders of the BA and

B Sc Honours from curriculums that require an extra year. Similarly, some graduate schools will give consideration to a candidate with a B Ed who wishes further teacher training. Other institutions require these last two categories to apply as undergraduates.

6. Because of the early age at which an Indian student goes to school and begins to take examinations, care should be exercised that the Indian student selected for admission be at least as mature and chronologically as old as U.S. students selected for the same program.
7. Every effort should be made to find out what a student's educational objective is and to determine whether or not it can be satisfied at the institution to which he is applying before he is given encouragement or admission by the institution. A disfavor is done the student when these things are not considered.
8. In view of the reduced emphasis on English as a language of instruction in India and the increase in the use of Indian languages as media of instruction (there are 14 Indian languages recognized by the constitution), it is necessary to check an applicant's English proficiency. A Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL) administered by the Educational Testing Service under the direction of the College Entrance Examination Board is recommended.
9. Unless and until more reliable criteria can be established, it is recommended that major consideration in the selection of Indian students for study in the United States be given to the level of marks made in examinations in India. Most U.S. universities look favorably upon candidates with First Class marks. Most disapprove candidates with Third Class or Pass. The disposition toward candidates with Second Class varies with the selectivity of the institution and program for which the candidate is applying.

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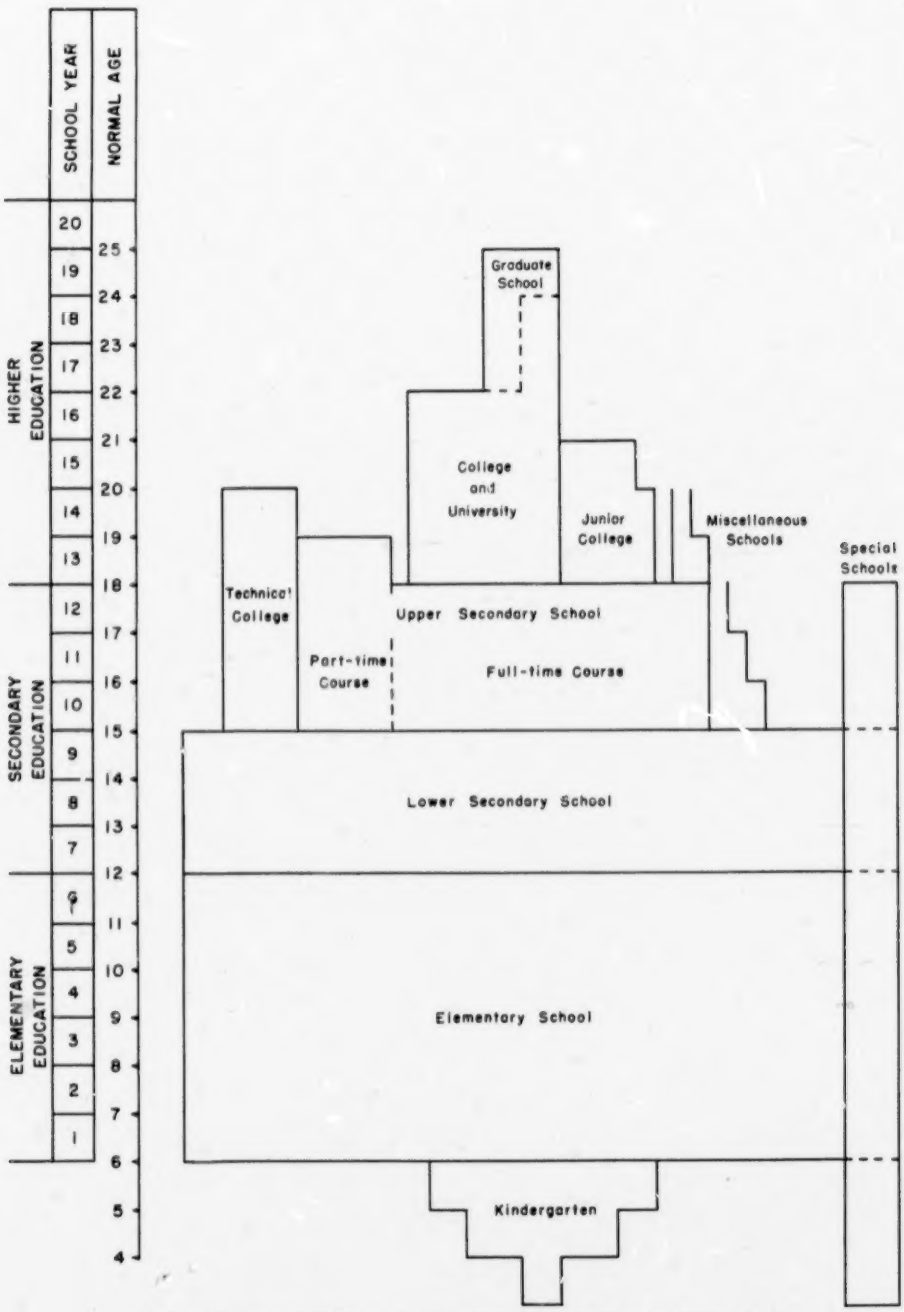
NAFSA. NAFSA India Seminar 1965. First hand impressions written on the spot by the 20 NAFSA members who visited India in 1965. The report is not designed to be used as an evaluation tool but should provide the evaluator with some insight into Indian education.

EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM IN JAPAN



Adapted From: Education in 1961 - Japan, Government of Japan, 1963.

J A P A N [1]

I. OVERVIEW OF THE EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM

Japan has had some form of schools and education for many centuries, but they were a part of a feudal society until 1872 when a modern system of education was established. Initial contact with the West in the 1870's resulted in a major effort to adopt educational systems of the Western world. However, since 1945, education has been patterned after the American system. In Japan today higher education is looked upon as highly essential for achieving important personal, social and professional goals. Consequently, more and more Japanese students are arduously seeking a college education.

How to determine whether applicants from Japan possess qualifications for productive studies in the United States is of primary concern to American colleges and universities.

A. Development of the Japanese Educational System

1. Old System: From 1872 to 1945 education in Japan consisted of a single track at the elementary or compulsory level and five separate tracks at the secondary level leading into higher education. Extensive information on the "old system" is available in the recently published AACRAO World Education Series book on Japan (see bibliography).

The "old system" was terminated in 1945. Students were allowed to finish their degrees, and the last doctorate was awarded in 1962. It may still be necessary to evaluate such doctoral work. This doctorate was awarded solely for original research and unusual scholarly achievement over many years, unlike the U.S. doctorate which is based on considerable graduate course work as well as research.

2. New System: The "new system" of Japanese education was established in 1946. The 6-5-3-3 structure of the old system was replaced by a 6-3-3-4 sequence, and nine years of elementary and

[1] Prepared by Clyde Vroman

lower secondary education were made compulsory. Students attend school five and one-half days a week for 35 weeks a year. An outline of the single-track school system used throughout Japan in 1963 is shown on page 17.

3. Scope of the Present School System: Japanese educational institutions fall into two distinct categories--public and private. The public institutions are further defined as two types--national and local. The local institutions include two types--prefectural and municipal. There are 46 prefectures in Japan and administratively they are analogous to the 50 states in the United States.

The types and levels of Japanese educational institutions in both the old and new systems of education are fully described in the AACRAO book on Japan.

4. Characteristics of Higher Education: Higher education in Japan is available not only in colleges and universities but also in junior colleges and technical colleges. All these kinds of higher institutions can be established under four major types of control; national, prefectural, municipal, and private, but they all come under the jurisdiction of the Minister of Education. There also are a few specialized government institutions under the jurisdiction of other ministries. Although Japanese higher education is unified on the national basis by laws and requirements of the Minister of Education, each institution is substantially free to develop its own curriculum and courses of study.

The 316 Japanese universities approved or established since 1949 are similar in many ways to American universities. Undergraduate programs include four years of study, and 124 credits are required for the bachelor's degree. One unit of credit is given for 45 hours of study inside and outside the classroom. Most universities have two or more faculties but some have only a single faculty. Faculties frequently have two or more departments. There are 12 types of faculties and 52 subject departments in the Japanese university system.

The master's degree did not exist in the "old system" of Japanese education. It was authorized in the "new system" by the School Education Law of 1947 and the first courses were offered in 1950. In 1962, there were 84 Japanese universities offering graduate courses. Completion of the master's degree requires two years of full-time study, including 30 course credit hours and a substantial amount of research culminating in a thesis. In general, the level of the Japanese master's degree program is similar to the American master's degree. However, the Japanese degree stresses almost entirely studies in the field of specialization with very little breadth in related fields of study.

The program of studies for the doctor's degree requires three or more years of study beyond the master's degree. The program involves 20 or more semester credit hours beyond the master's degree. Each student must complete a major research project, submit a dissertation, and pass a final examination. The M.D. and D.D.S. degrees require a minimum of six years beyond the bachelor's degree.

The Japanese junior colleges may offer two, or, in some cases, three years of collegiate education. Approximately 80 per cent of the junior colleges are privately controlled. All of the national junior colleges are attached to universities. Emphasis is on terminal programs and less than 10 per cent of the graduates actually transfer into a university. Half of the faculty members teach on a part-time basis.

The technical colleges offer a five-year continuous program. Students attending the technical colleges will begin to graduate in 1967. For details on the program of study, refer to the AACRAO book by Vroman.

Technical teacher training institutes are attached to leading national universities. Their purpose is to prepare teachers of technical education for the upper secondary schools. The program of training covers three years of higher education.

5. Admission Selections and Pertinent Data: Following nine

years of compulsory education, selection to the upper secondary schools is made on the basis of achievement tests and lower secondary school reports. Students in the upper secondary schools generally attend from 30 to 35 fifty-minute classes per week. One credit is granted for 35 class periods. At least 85 credits are required for graduation.

Admission to a university is usually extremely competitive, based on 12 years of elementary and secondary education, prescribed academic admission requirements, and passing the university's entrance examinations. About seven per cent of the related age groups attend universities in Japan.

Admission to the master's degree program requires the bachelor's degree and subject matter entrance examinations, including foreign languages. Admission is often very competitive within the admission quotas of the institution.

Each junior college sets its own admission requirements and standards. Only about 50 per cent of the students who apply for admission are accepted.

Admission to technical colleges is selective and competitive through examinations. Admission to technical teacher training institutes follows a similar pattern.

II. SPECIAL PROBLEMS

The credentials evaluator should be aware of several characteristics and/or problems related to the Japanese system. Examinations play a major role in the Japanese educational system. Not only are examinations paramount in determining one's entry into various levels of education, but also they are used as the primary tool to determine the quality of work being accomplished in subject matter areas. Beginning with his entry into higher secondary school, a Japanese student's educational future is regulated largely by the success he has in obtaining qualifying scores on entrance examinations given at various levels of education. The examination continues to be of vital importance through each period of his

enrollment, as it is chiefly the examination and not a combination of other factors (class participation, weekly quizzes, mid-term examinations, etc.), that will decide his grade.

Instruction in Japanese educational institutions is normally given by means of the lecture method and is oriented almost exclusively to subject matter content presented by the professor. Consequently, great emphasis is placed on the memorization of the material presented. The major task of the student is the compilation of lecture notes. Class attendance varies considerably because it is not mandatory in Japanese institutions of higher learning. While access to higher education is very selective and must be earned by passing rigorous, competitive examinations, the Japanese student, once admitted, is seldom dismissed for academic reasons and is relatively sure of eventual graduation, provided he meets the graduation requirements.

Another noteworthy characteristic of higher education is the strong tendency for the Japanese student to remain at the institution in which he first enrolled. Student transfer between institutions, fairly common in the United States, is practically unheard of in Japan. The Japanese student places much value on gaining admission to his preferred university. The prospective student who is not successful in gaining admission to his first choice of institutions may decide to take the examination again one or more years later rather than to seek admission to another institution. During the one or more years of waiting, the student spends much time in further preparation for the next examinations.

The junior colleges in Japan have several characteristics which distinguish them from their U.S. counterpart. While junior colleges in Japan may offer two or occasionally three years of collegiate education in nearly all collegiate fields, they typically are specialized colleges concentrating on one or a small group of related areas, such as mechanical and electrical technologies, home economics, literature, and elementary school teacher training.

Unlike most community colleges in the United States, Japanese junior colleges usually have a selective admission standard. Only about 50 per cent of the students who apply are accepted, and women make up 70 per cent of the enrollment. Whereas U.S. community colleges send a high percentage of their graduates to four-year institutions, less than 10 percent of the students completing junior college programs in Japan transfer to senior institutions. One of the main reasons for this low transfer rate is the fact that the typical junior college curriculum includes practical courses which are not offered in the universities.

As one would expect, the Japanese language is used as the medium of instruction in the schools of Japan. However, much emphasis is placed on the study of foreign language as early as the lower secondary school level. Foreign language is a required course of study at the higher secondary school level; and, of the several foreign languages available, English predominates. Because native speakers of English are not common among school faculties, emphasis is placed on the development of reading and writing skills rather than those related to speaking and listening. This is one of the major reasons why it is so important to verify the English proficiencies of Japanese students before they are placed in U.S. institutions of higher education.

A new type of educational institution was established in 1962 when "technical colleges" were opened for enrollment, offering a unified program encompassing the last three years of higher secondary school and the first two years of college experience similar to the two-year technical college in the United States. Admission to these programs is selective and competitive through examinations. By November 1965 there were 54 of these technical colleges, and more are being established.

III. QUALITY FACTORS

A. The Japanese University Accrediting Association

The Japanese University Accrediting Association (JUAA) is a voluntary association of national, public, and private universities established in 1947 with 49 members. By September, 1965, there were 72 universities in the Association.

The JUAA lists a university as accredited if it has at least one faculty which has been approved for accreditation. Therefore, not all the faculties in an "accredited" university are necessarily accredited. In general, only about half the faculties of the universities on the JUAA list have been accredited. The JUAA has an "Associate" status which many unaccredited universities hold, but this associate status carries with it no implication of accreditation or statement of quality. The JUAA does not accredit junior colleges or technical colleges.

The new World Education Series publication on Japan carries a more complete explanation of the JUAA, and in the Directory of that publication information will be found on each of the accredited faculties of Japanese universities. Considerable weight can be given to accreditation by the JUAA. Faculties which are as yet unaccredited will have to be judged by the institutions of which they are a part.

B. General

The Japanese Ministry of Education approves the establishment of schools and prescribes curriculum requirements and standards. Student advancement beyond the compulsory first nine years is determined largely by competitive examination. The standards for these achievement examinations in elementary and lower secondary schools are outlined by the Ministry of Education, while the schools themselves determine the specific content. At the higher education level the Ministry assigns a quota to each faculty commensurate with its resources and facilities. Realizing that the assigned quota will permit accepting only a small number of the applicants

for admission, the university or college designs very selective and difficult examinations, and only a minority of the students who take them are successful.

Summarized briefly, we can assume that the quality of education in Japan compares favorably with other major nations of the world. But since Japan does not have a unified national examination system at the higher education level, our main factor available for assessing the quality of a Japanese student's academic record is the stature and strength of the university or college in which he received his education.

It was suggested at the workshop that the World Education Series publication on Japan could provide clues to the strength of the institution. Specific factors that were cited include JUAA accreditation, presence of MA and Ph D programs, admissions policy, and similarity to U.S. institution type.

IV. GRADING SYSTEM

Japanese high schools uniformly use a five-part, numerical grading system of 5 (top), 4, 3, 2, and 1 (fail), as required by the Ministry of Education.

Most higher education institutions use a scale of three passing grades which, on the translated transcripts sent to U.S. universities and colleges, usually appear as A, B, and C. Since courses failed are not recorded on the permanent record or the student's transcript, we will receive only these passing grades.

Reasonable investigation uncovered no published research or other valid information by which we might objectively assign a quality interpretation to Japanese grades. Therefore, in attempting to assign value to those grades, we can only gather informed opinions and generalize on that basis. The following values recommended by one authority on Japanese education seems reasonable and justified:

Grade

A - Indicates the student applied himself commendably and did good work in the course.

B - Indicates fair work in the course.

C - This is the lowest passing grade. It apparently represents a "frowning" grade from the professor. It seems to carry the connotation of our "graduate school C."

V. RECOMMENDATIONS

1. Evaluators of Japanese educational credentials should have and use the new (April, 1966) AACRAO World Education Series publication prepared by Clyde Vroman, Japan - A Guide To The Academic Placement Of Japanese Students In United States Educational Institutions. The Guide provides (1) information and a system for estimating the educational qualifications of the student, and (2) a directory of 752 approved institutions of higher education in Japan, and a glossary of Japanese educational terms.

2. Documentation: It is possible to obtain complete academic credentials from Japanese institutions. U.S. admissions officers, who are responsible either for determining eligibility for admission or who are serving as advisers to the faculty on admission, are urged to request additional school records when the submitted credentials are incomplete. A complete university credential lists, in addition to the student's personal data, the elected courses in chronological order, the hours per week spent and/or the unit value of the individual course, and the achieved grade on the final examination in each course. If the student completed his degree program, the date of the award and the title of the degree are also given.

The academic records are maintained, in Japanese, on

uniform government prescribed forms. The records are translated by school officials; typed English copies of the original Japanese records are validated by the institution's unique stamp and the signature of the school official.

3. In evaluating A, B, C grades earned in Japanese higher education institutions, it is well to remember that almost no Japanese students receive failing grades, and that grades are based almost entirely on the end-of-course examinations. It is possible for Japanese students to be absent from some or all of the class sessions and yet to take the course final examination and pass creditably.

Since the predominant grading system of Japanese colleges and universities has three passing grades instead of four, it is recommended that U.S. admission officers take this into account when evaluating Japanese academic credentials. Examples of three conversion scales used by several U.S. universities represented at the workshop are:

U.S. University

	Example I			Example II			Example III		
Jap. Grade	A	B	C	A	B	C	A	B	C
U.S. Grade Allocation	3/4A 1/4B	1/2B 1/2C	1/4C 3/4D	1/2A 1/2B	1/2B 1/2C	1/2C 1/2D	A	B	2/3C 1/3D
U.S. Grade Point	3.75	2.5	1.25	3.5	2.5	1.5	4	3	1.67

It is obvious that in most cases different equivalency scales may produce substantial variations in final grade-point averages. It is recommended that each U.S. admission officer who uses grades as a major criterion of academic quality (1) formulate a grade-point equivalency scale for his institution and (2) carry on follow-up studies designed to insure the continued refinement of the scale. Then over a period of years scales that are demonstrably valid for particular institutions will be developed.

4. English Competence: Although English is the most used and taught foreign language in Japan, the typical Japanese applicant for admission to an American college or university usually is deficient in the English competencies necessary to pursue an academic program where English is the language of instruction. Some applicants acknowledge their deficiencies in English and request admission to an English program as part of their overall objective. No Japanese student should be enrolled in a college program for which he lacks the requisite command of English. Both TOEFL and the CEEB aptitude and achievement tests are offered in Japan. The applicant also has the opportunity to take the English examination administered by the American consular officer nearest his home. The admissions officer in an institution in the United States is advised to require English test results before granting unqualified admission. Years of "A" grades in English courses or the recommendation of a professor are not normally adequate indicators of the applicant's proficiency. The Japanese applicant usually has not attained the level of English proficiency reached by many applicants from such countries as India and the Philippine Islands, where the language of instruction often is English. Recommendation. Admission requirements and processes should include reliable evidence of the applicant's command of English--reading, writing, hearing, and speaking. If the student is deficient in any of the skills essential for success in his U.S. studies, he should not be admitted, unless the institution is prepared to provide the needed remedial instruction after the student's enrollment.

5. Placement Recommendations: The proper placement of Japanese students in the U.S. educational institutions is our most important task in the admission processes. This

is a very complex matter which cannot be described easily or briefly. Therefore, the admission officer should be thoroughly acquainted with Chapter VI, Placement Recommendations, in the AACRAO publication Japan - A Guide To The Academic Placement Of Students From Japan In United States Educational Institutions. That chapter describes the problems, tells how to use the placement recommendations, and presents the credit and placement recommendations for both the Old System and the New System of Japanese Education, as approved by the Council on Evaluation of Foreign Student Credentials in July, 1965. The following table of credit and placement recommendations on the "New System--1963" is excerpted, with the author's permission, from the above study on Japan.

JAPANESE SCHOOLS - "NEW SYSTEM", 1963

The various levels of the "New System" 6-3-3-4 Japanese education structure in general may be treated as similar and equivalent to parallel years of education in U.S. schools, colleges, and universities. It is assumed that the nature of the Japanese student's total previous education in relation to his proposed course of study in the United States will be taken into account in deciding his placement in the new program of study. Allow credits on a course-for-course basis to the extent the subject contents are comparable to the requirements in the program the student will be pursuing in his American study.

Type of Institution	Years of Education Required: Elementary	Lower Sec.	Upper Sec.	Higher	Total Years	Credit and Placement Level in U.S. Education
Sho-gakko (elementary school)	6	0	0	0	6	Jr. high school grade 7
Chu-gakko (lower secondary school)	6	3	0	0	9	High school grade 10
Koto-gakko (upper secondary school - "USS")						
a. Full-time, 3 years	6	3	3	0	12	College freshman
b. Part-time, 4 years	6	3	4	0	13	College freshman
c. Short course, varying length	6	3	1+	0	10+	Grade 11, or higher
Daigaku (university)						
a. Gakushi (bachelor's degree)	6	3	3	4	16	Graduate school, provided the student seems clearly ready for graduate work in his major field of study.

Type of Institution	Years of Education Required: Elementary	Lower Sec.	Upper Sec.	Higher	Total Years	Credit and Placement Level in U.S. Education
b. Shushi (master's degree)	6	3	3	4+2	18	Graduate school, with appropriate graduate credits after successful study in a U.S. graduate school.
c. Hakushi (doctorate)	6	3	3	4+2+3	21	Graduate school or post-doctoral studies, depending on the student's purpose.
d. Senko-ka (short course)	6	3	3	1+	13+	Treat as primarily vocational college credit.
Ika-daigaku and shika-daigaku (university of medicine and dentistry)						
a. Gakushi katei (bachelor course)	6	3	3	6	18	See "medicine" in Chap. V
b. Hakushi katei (doctor course)	6	3	3	6+4	22	See "dentistry" in Chap. V
Tanki-daigaku (junior college)						
a. 2-year course	6	3	3	2	14	Up to 2 years of college credit.
b. 3-year course	6	3	3	3	15	Up to 3 years of college credit. See statement preceding this table.

Type of Institution	Years of Education Required: Elementary	Lower Sec.	Upper Sec.	Higher	Total Years	Credit and Placement Level in U.S. Education
Kogyo-kyoin-yoseijo (technical teacher-training institute)	6	3	3	3	15	Up to 3 years of related college credit.
Koto-senmon-gakko (technical college) 3 years of upper secondary education and 2 years of higher education	6	3	3	2	14	Up to 2 years of technical college credit.
Special schools for handicapped children a. Mo-gakko (school for blind) b. Ro-gakko (school for deaf and dumb) c. Yogo-gakko (school for handicapped)	6	3	3	0	12	Evaluate individually

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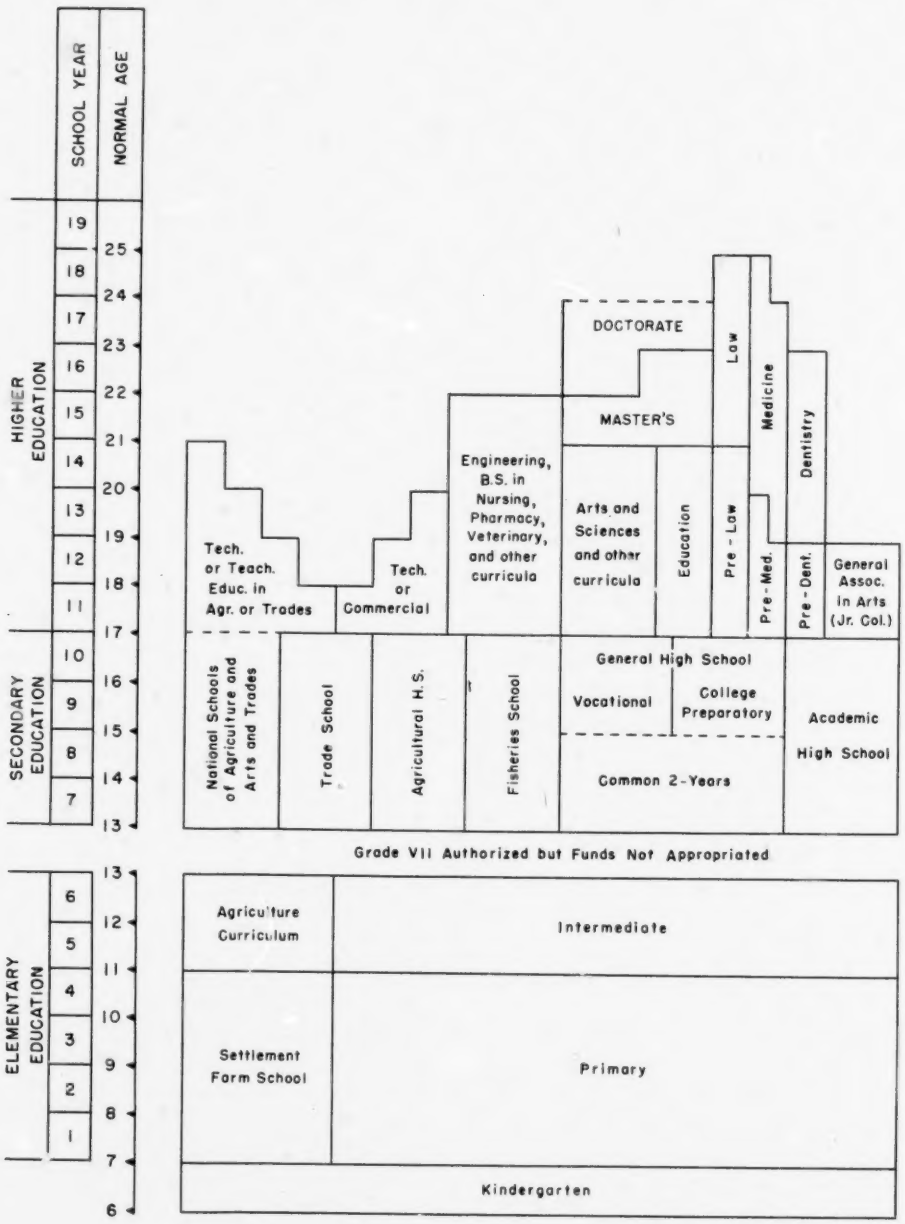
EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM IN THE PHILIPPINES



Adopted From: Carson, Arthur L., Higher Education in the Philippines, U.S. Office of Education, 1961.

P H I L I P P I N E S [1]

I. OVERVIEW OF THE EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM

In the pre-Spanish era (prior to 1564) education in the Philippines, though considered important, was entirely informal. Formal education began with the arrival of the Spanish missionaries who from the earliest years of Spanish colonization undertook to establish a private system of elementary, secondary, and university-level schools on the European pattern. In 1853 a public school system was established, and 200,000 (a large percentage of the population in those days) were enrolled in school by 1900. Most public schools were supervised by the parish priests who were often the best educated men in the village.

With the entrance of the United States into the Philippines and the proclamation of the first Philippine republic in 1899, the system of education was re-examined and provisions were made for a mass educational program to raise the standard of literacy and to make education available to the greatest possible number of people. In 1901 a law was passed which insured free public education and provided for: (1) control and leadership of all schools by educators, not politicians; (2) all education in English; (3) the importation of 1000 U.S. teachers to help improve the quality of education. As a result of this law, control of the Philippine school system was centralized and the school season was made uniform, no longer related to the cycle of crops. The education and training of teachers was improved and the bureaucratic administration of the schools was broadened. Gradually the native teachers increased in number and competence and the number of U.S. teachers employed in the Philippine educational system decreased.

The development of the Philippine educational system has been affected by the rural nature of the country which includes 75 languages and distinct cultures. Ninety per cent of the people,

[1]Prepared by James Frey

however, belong to one of eight similar lowland Christian groups. Forty-five per cent of the people speak Tagalog, forty per cent speak English. The country is split approximately 60/40 in favor of eventually using Tagalog as the medium of instruction in the schools. At the present time, classes for the first two years of school are taught in the vernacular in public schools, in English in most private schools; the remainder of the classes in both systems are taught in English.

Public elementary education now reaches 85% of the 18,000 Philippine barrios, and the average barrio (village) has one two-grade school, with at least 30 pupils (the minimum required in order to have a teacher). Only the first two grades are free and compulsory; although the schools in many of the small villages do not go beyond this level, the larger towns offer both a six-year elementary program (four years primary, two years intermediate) and a four-year secondary program. While the public elementary schools have only six grades, some of the better private schools offer seven, and a very few independent schools require eight. (The Ateneo de Manila, the American School in Manila, Brent School in Baguio, and the U.S. Armed Forces dependent schools all follow the U.S. 8-4 plan. At one time the public elementary schools included grade seven, but it was dropped in 1945 as an austerity measure; although it was restored by law in 1953, funds have never been appropriated, and at this writing we know of no plans to implement it within the near future). Because of the variation in the amount of education offered at the elementary level, a Philippine secondary school can represent grades 7-10, 8-11, or 9-12. It is therefore necessary to have detailed information about the extent of a student's elementary education before one can assess the level of his high school preparation.

Although a Philippine student studies more subjects per year at all levels of education than a similar student does in the United States, 40% of his time in both elementary and secondary

education, both public and private, is devoted to some type of language training (including vernacular languages, Tagalog, English, and Spanish). Furthermore, the Philippine government demands that each student's program of study on the college level must include at least 24 hours of Spanish in addition to other languages required by his college and regardless of his field. This overemphasis on the study of languages frequently results in reduced coursework in non-language areas, except in institutions with rigorous academic standards where such required courses are added to the institution's own curricular requirements. But the latter situation frequently means that the students of the better schools are forced to carry an extra-heavy program of study, and this may affect their performance and depth of knowledge in all of the subjects which they study.

Philippine institutions of higher education can be grouped into three major categories: public, private sectarian, and private non-sectarian. The number of these institutions has increased tremendously since World War II and it is very difficult for any governmental or private agency to provide adequate regulation and supervision of all institutions or to set up criteria of excellence which will distinguish strong schools from weak ones. Because Philippine students take no general national examination to qualify for graduation from secondary school or entrance to higher education, it is extremely difficult to measure either the ability and achievement of the student or the academic standards of the college or university in which he has enrolled.

II. QUALITY FACTORS

It has been estimated that approximately 90% of the students who are enrolled in post-secondary training in the Philippines attend the private colleges and universities. (There are now 350 private institutions which offer post-secondary or collegiate programs in the Philippine sense). These private institutions

are supervised by the national Department of Education through its Bureau of Private Schools which is responsible for setting and enforcing minimum standards, approving curricula, and authorizing the granting of degrees in each individual field of study. From time to time this Bureau issues a "List of Authorized Private Schools and Courses." The fact that a private institution appears on this list means only that it has met the government's minimum physical and quantitative standards for some or all of its courses of study; to be officially recognized in this manner does not constitute accreditation of a school or guarantee the quality of its academic programs. Although there are some private institutions (notably a few select church-related colleges) where the number of well-qualified applicants far exceeds the number of places available, and others which will admit students only if they place in the upper half of their high school graduating class or are successful on an entrance examination, the fact remains that an overwhelmingly large percentage of private institutions require no specific qualitative minimum for admission, and the attrition rate after enrollment is low in many of these schools.

The University of the Philippines and other public universities and colleges are governed by boards of regents of which the Secretary of Education and several other government officers are ex officio members. (The national Department of Education through its Bureau of Public Schools supervises those public institutions and state colleges, such as the teacher training institutions, which do not have their own boards of trustees). Although in a very limited sense all publicly supported institutions may be viewed as "accredited" because they operate under governmental sanction and authority, it would be inappropriate for anyone to claim that high standards and a superior quality of instruction can be taken for granted just because an institution is a public one. Until such time as an extensive and consistent program of accreditation is put into operation for the public and/or private

schools, there will continue to be very few guidelines for judging the standards of particular institutions and the quality of their students' academic preparation for study abroad.

The need for establishing methods and standards of accreditation on the basis of quality has been recognized in the Philippines for many years, especially in regard to the private schools. Despite some efforts in this direction, no centralized agency or group has been organized to date to implement an accreditation program for all institutions regardless of their affiliation or sponsorship. Some progress toward this goal is being made, however, through efforts of educational associations which represent the sectarian (church-related) group of private schools. The Catholic Educational Association of the Philippines (CEAP) has organized the Philippine Accrediting Association of Schools, Colleges and Universities (PAASCU) which has thus far granted accreditation to 13 post-secondary Catholic institutions. The Association of Christian Schools and Colleges (ACSC), which represents 45 institutions which operate under the auspices of the Protestant and Evangelical churches, has also undertaken a program of accreditation; one university has already been accredited by this group and the applications of two others are under consideration. In addition to the relatively small number of church-related schools which have thus far been accredited by these associations, 45 graduate schools have been listed as accredited institutions by the Philippine Association of Graduate Education (PAGE). A fourth educational organization, the Philippine Association of Colleges and Universities (PACU), includes in its current membership 38 of the approximately 250 private non-sectarian institutions, but this group has not yet ventured into an accreditation program.

Efforts are being made by the various educational associations to consolidate their programs in order to exert a greater influence on the national scene. This is being done primarily through the Coordinating Council of Private Educational

Associations (COCOPEA), in which each association is represented by its president. In addition to discussing accreditation, curricula, and other mutual problems and exchanging information, the Council also works with the government through the Board of National Education; it is especially active in this regard when educational legislation is being considered on the national level (for example, laws affecting curricula, finances, and teacher salaries). In this role the Council acts both as an interested party and as a source of proposals and recommendations on all aspects of Philippine education.

The fact that some basic steps toward the development of a system of accreditation are being seriously undertaken within certain segments of higher education in the Philippines is a commendable and encouraging sign of genuine concern about the standards of education, and of a determination to evaluate and improve the quality of Philippine colleges and universities. While lists of institutions which have already met some qualitative accrediting standards may prove useful to U.S. admissions officers, it must be pointed out, however, that institutions which are not on these lists should not thereby be considered unqualified for such accreditation. The attempts at accreditation are too recent and the processes of investigation and evaluation too time consuming to permit us to assume that all schools which may potentially be qualified have actually been considered at this time. Indeed, we have no basis for knowing which schools have thus far even applied to one or another association for accreditation, and the fact that the private non-sectarian institutions, which comprise roughly two-thirds of the total student enrollment in collegiate education in the Philippines, are not yet involved in any accreditation program is evidence enough of the limited scope of present efforts. Therefore, we must treat current accreditation lists as an endorsement of the relatively good quality and standards of those institutions which are included,

without assuming that they are in any way complete or exclusive.

An additional problem in Philippine higher education somewhat related to the question of accreditation concerns the educational and legal status of stock-issuing private non-sectarian educational institutions (the two largest universities fall into this category, each having an enrollment of over 50,000). Under present laws a private college or university is considered to be a corporation, and this interpretation has two major implications for institutions which depend upon income from student tuition for both operating expenses and profit: (1) no private institution may receive governmental financial support; (2) foundation and individual support is discouraged because contributions are not tax deductible. (The resultant scramble to get the most mileage out of the tuition dollar has led the major profit-sharing stock-issuing institutions to admit every student who applies; their teachers carry a weekly teaching load of 15-30 credit hours, receiving a salary of 6-10 pesos per hour, and the faculty-student ratio is approximately 1/500. Despite this situation, one of these institutions has a good reputation in both accounting and medicine, since nearly 100% of its graduates in these fields pass the CPA and medical exams). In 1964 the Foundation for Private Education in the Philippines was formed to explore means of improving the academic standards of private non-sectarian institutions. Legislation has been introduced which would enable private institutions to become foundations and if this effort is successful we can expect the overall quality of private education in the Philippines to improve.

The Philippines and two other Southeast Asia Treaty Organization countries (Pakistan and Thailand) are recent signatories to an educational equivalency agreement. This SEATO contract equates various educational levels of the three countries and encourages the inter-migration of students. It illustrates the desire of the Philippines to increase its association with other Asian countries and to break down its long-held identity as a "western"

community in the Orient. This contract is believed to be the first of its kind between several countries, and gives further evidence of the willingness of Philippine educators to accept and implement new ideas.

In summary, we can say that if one judges the quality of higher education in the Philippines by current United States standards, he will probably conclude that it is generally below the level of excellence which we call average. However, if he bears in mind the needs of Philippine society, the forces which have influenced its development (particularly, of course, the role of Spain and the United States), and the present level of the nation's political and economic development, he will have to conclude that the system of education as it exists is meeting the needs of the society, the culture, and the economic conditions which prevail, and that in so doing it has developed areas of strength as well as areas of weakness, and quality institutions as well as inferior ones. Today the Philippines enjoys a high rate of literacy (unlike most of its neighbors), and education is respected and universally available. As citizens of a relatively new republic, the Filipinos are constantly evaluating and upgrading their economic, social, and educational institutions. Current trends indicate a further extension and modernization of teacher training institutions and an increasing emphasis on vocational education, particularly in those fields necessary to the economic growth of the republic. The country seems to be guided by the philosophy that it will not reject everything that is not Filipino or accept things just because they are Filipino, and hence, with dynamic leadership and popular support, the quality of education in the Philippines is being improved. For the present, however, it is paramount that U.S. admissions officers recognize that the standards of quality of Philippine institutions vary greatly. It is suggested that experiences be shared with colleagues (hopefully in the form of follow-up studies), that

questions concerning quality be raised at local conferences, and that a list of Philippine institutions which have a tradition of quality be maintained. Until a comprehensive system of accreditation is in operation, it is imperative that we exercise good judgment in assessing the probability of success in our institutions of applicants from the Philippines.

III. GRADING SYSTEM

Transcripts of academic records from Philippine colleges and universities reveal a great diversity in grading systems, with letter grades, percentage marks, and a 1-5 number scale all in common use. Even among institutions which follow the same type of grading system, one finds variations in the number and definition of the divisions which indicate level of quality in that system. Statements concerning grading systems which appear on transcripts or in the bulletins of various well-known institutions distinguish as few as three or as many as ten levels of acceptable performance between "passing" and "excellent". Below "passing", some institutions identify only "failure", while others specify a value or range of values interpreted as "conditional" which lies above the failing grade. In most cases re-examination is permitted to remove a "conditional" grade.

Many institutions (notably the University of the Philippines) have adopted a 1-5 grading scale, with "1" representing the highest attainable grade and "3" the minimum passing grade (a few institutions designate 3.5 as "barely passing"). Levels of achievement between "1" and "3" may be indicated by whole units (1, 2, 3), half-divisions (1.5, 2.0, 2.5, etc.), quarter divisions (1.50, 1.75, 2.00, 2.25, 2.50, etc.), or decimals (1.7, 1.8, 1.9, 2.0, 2.1, etc.). Where the more finely divided grading scales are used, transcript keys frequently fail to define clearly the upper and lower limits of the range of marks which is meant to correspond to each of the major descriptive categories of quality (excellent, very good,

good, etc.).

Among schools which report grades on a percentage scale, the grouping of grades into broad categories of excellent, very good, good, etc., also shows considerable variability in the number of divisions used and the particular range of marks assigned to them. The minimum for passing is usually 75%, although 70% is sometimes used.

Confronted by the diversity in Philippine grading systems, one is at a loss for clear and consistent guidelines when trying to convert a student's Philippine marks to a grade point average expressed in terms of the U.S. 4-point scale. Some assistance may be obtained from the recommended conversion scale which is included in the Philippine Placement Guide published by AACRAO in the World Education Series. A discussion of several grading scales also appears in Carson's Higher Education In The Philippines (pp. 180-181). Recommendation 2 of this report represents an attempt to update and consolidate the major conversion recommendations. Although these recommendations are not applicable in detail to the grading systems of all Philippine institutions, they are sufficiently representative to serve as a guide for estimating the academic performance, in U.S. terms, of most Philippine applicants. For more exact information on the grading systems of individual Philippine institutions, admissions officers are urged to consult the bulletins of the schools in question.

IV. OBSERVATIONS ABOUT CERTAIN PHILIPPINE COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES

The majority of the participants in this workshop felt that the general observations made within the workshop concerning specific Philippine institutions should be included in this report. These observations should not be interpreted as the authoritative conclusions of the participants, nor are they intended to constitute an attempt at accreditation or evaluation of Philippine institutions. We therefore appeal to the reader's good judgment on this subjective

treatment of an extremely complex topic.

It is noted elsewhere in this report that there are two problems involved in assessing the quality of any Philippine institution: (1) there is no national standardized examination by which the quality of its applicants might be judged, and (2) there is no consistent plan of accreditation. We must therefore rely on the experiences of our colleagues and the impressions of Philippine educators when trying to identify those institutions which appear to meet acceptable academic standards by United States criteria. It should be understood that there may be other colleges and universities which should be included on this list, and conversely, that the fact that an institution is included on this list does not constitute an endorsement of it by the participants of this workshop. It should also be remembered that, as is true in the United States, good students can be found in any school; the quality of a student's institution is only one of the factors to be considered when he applies for admission.

The grouping which follows is based upon the opinions of several Philippine educators and of the majority of the workshop participants. Group I designates a small number of institutions which offer programs of the highest quality. These colleges and universities have traditionally sent large numbers of students to the United States, and available evidence indicates that their academic preparation is similar to that found in students from good institutions in this country. Group II includes a larger number of schools which may, in one or more disciplines, meet at least minimum accreditation standards in the United States. It should be noted, however, that there may be great variance in quality between the different faculties which form any one institution, and care should therefore be exercised when considering for admission a student from any of the institutions listed in Group II.

GROUP I

Anteneo de Manila (Manila) 1
De la Salle University (Manila) 1
Silliman University (Dumaguete) 2
University of the Philippines (Quezon City) 3

GROUP II

Adamson University (Manila)
Ateneo de Davao (Davao)
Centro Escolar University (Manila)
Central Philippine University (Iloilo) 4
Far Eastern University (Manila) 5
FEATI (Manila) 6
Holy Ghost College (Manila) 1
Mapua Inst. of Technology (Manila) 6
Maryknoll College (Manila) 1
Manuel L. Quezon College (Manila) 7
National Teachers College (Manila) 8
National University (Manila)
Philippine Christian College (Manila) 4
Philippine Normal College (Manila) 8
Philippine Women's University (Manila) 8
St. Joseph College (Manila) 1
St. Louis University (Baguio)
St. Paul College (Dumaguete) 1
St. Paul College (Manila) 1
St. Paul College (Tuguegarao) 1
St. Scholastica College (Manila) 1
St. Theresa's College (Cebu City) 1
St. Theresa's College (Manila) 1
San Beda College (Manila) 1
University of San Agustin (Iloilo)
University of San Carlos (Cebu City) 1
University of Santo Tomas (Manila)
University of Southern Philippines (Cebu City)
University of the East (Manila) 5 & 9
Xavier University (Cagayan de Oro)

1 Accredited by the Philippine Accrediting Association of Schools, Colleges, and Universities (PAASCU).

2 Accredited by the Association of Christian Schools and Colleges (ACSC).

3 Largest public institution.

4 Accreditation under consideration by ACSC.

5 A private, non-sectarian stock-issuing institution.

6 Engineering and technology.

7 Law

8 Major emphasis on teacher education.

9 Acknowledged as having superior programs in business and medicine.

V. RECOMMENDATIONS

1. For those Philippine students who have completed a ten-year elementary-secondary curriculum, the minimum requirement for admission to a college or university in the United States should be one year of college-level work in the Philippines.

   Philippine high school graduation alone should not be considered sufficient for college admission in the United States, since students admitted directly to U.S. colleges and universities from Philippine secondary schools are likely to be both ill-prepared and immature. At the present time, the Philippine elementary-secondary cycle consists of only ten years of preparation in most schools, and therefore the Philippine student encounters a two-year "gap" in his scholastic background when he enters a collegiate educational institution in the United States immediately after high school. Furthermore, while the traditional pre-college program in the U.S. provides a strong background in English, social studies, mathematics, and both theoretical and laboratory sciences, pre-college training in the Philippines is dominated by the study of languages, since each student is required to study his native dialect, the national language (Tagalog), English (the medium of instruction from grade three through college), and Spanish.

   It is therefore recommended that students who graduate from a Philippine high school after ten years

of education be required to complete successfully at least one year and preferably two years of general liberal arts courses at the college level in the Philippines before being admitted to freshman status in the United States. Bright students may be given the opportunity to sit for departmental examinations in order to obtain freshman class credit, thereby being considered on a basis similar to that of the better American students who qualify for credit through the Advanced Placement Program.

2. Students seeking admission to undergraduate or graduate programs in the U.S. should generally present an accumulative grade index of at least 2.00 (two) on the Philippine scale. (This should not be confused with 2.00 on the traditional 4.00 point system used in the United States).

   Many Philippine institutions use a grading scale of one to five (with one representing the highest achievement); some schools, however, follow the popular U.S. 4.00 system (e.g., Ateneo de Manila), while others grade by percentage. Although there are some exceptions, the most common equivalents would be:

U.S.	Phil. Points*	Phil. %*
4.00 A	1.00	97 - 100
3.50 B+	1.50	93 - 96
3.00 B	2.00	86 - 92
2.50 C+	2.50	81 - 85
2.00 C	3.0	75 - 80

*Average equivalents of several institutions.

3. Philippine secondary school graduates and students currently enrolled in an undergraduate program should generally be encouraged to complete their bachelor's degree program in the Philippines before coming to study in the United States.

Many Philippine institutions of good standards now offer strong undergraduate programs in the humanities, medical fields (including nursing), technical sciences, and education, and access to these undergraduate courses of study is restricted only by the financial limitations of the applicants. Graduates of these programs have generally been exposed to the academic disciplines which seem to predict success in our graduate programs. It is therefore preferable for the Philippine student to enter a post-baccalaureate program in the United States and concentrate on those skills which are considered to be vital to the growth and development of both himself and his country.

4. Students who have terminated their education in the Philippines with a bachelor's degree should generally be admitted to U.S. institutions as unclassified or special students on the undergraduate level for one semester or one year before admission to a graduate degree program is granted. (Some institutions may wish to admit directly to a graduate school with a deficiency of one or more semesters).

Students who have completed undergraduate programs in the Philippines are still faced with the two-year "gap" referred to above. Admission to upper-division undergraduate courses will (1) permit them to make up academic deficiencies, (2) acquaint them with the U.S. educational system in a less demanding atmosphere, and (3) provide further evidence that they are capable of advanced training.

Although it is quite possible that a strong student would succeed in a graduate degree program without further undergraduate training, care should be taken before such placement is made unless the applicant has been very carefully screened beforehand (e.g., Fulbright grantees).

In certain specialized areas in which a five-year degree program has been followed (e.g., Engineering), the above recommendations would not apply.

5. English is almost a "first language" for the educated Filipino, since it is the language in which he was instructed from the third grade on. For this reason the majority of applicants to U.S. colleges and universities who come from the larger metropolitan areas have no difficulty passing the tests of English proficiency which are ordinarily required. Some of these tests are costly and are administered infrequently at only a few test centers, thereby constituting a hardship for many applicants. (For example, a ten-dollar test fee is roughly equivalent to forty dollars in both income and buying power in the Philippines; the need to procure transportation to testing centers plus meals and lodging frequently causes additional expense). Although all agreed that each Philippine student should be tested for English proficiency, some workshop participants and most Philippine educators who were consulted felt that because of the many other fees which the Philippine applicant faces, and because there are English tests available for which no fee is charged (e.g., a test administered by U.S. consular officials), U.S. colleges and universities should not require Philippine applicants to take a test of English proficiency for which a fee is charged.

   Many workshop participants, however, felt that the proficiency of applicants who come from outlying areas is frequently poor, and that relying upon local personnel or U.S. consular officials to attest to the English proficiency of Philippine applicants is not always possible or reliable; for these reasons they believed that a standardized test of English proficiency is not only

desirable but also extremely valuable. While they agreed that the amount of the test fee can be burdensome, they maintained that this hardship is not unique to the Philippines and that it is a small consideration when compared to the total expense of studying in the United States. Since many of their institutions offer full or partial financial support to Philippine students, they were unwilling to overlook the use of standardized tests of English proficiency, particularly since the information derived from them could be a very important factor in determining the probability of academic success or failure for Philippine applicants. Because of these two divergent opinions concerning the necessity and desirability of requiring standardized tests of English proficiency, the members of the workshop were unable to agree to any specific recommendation on this topic.

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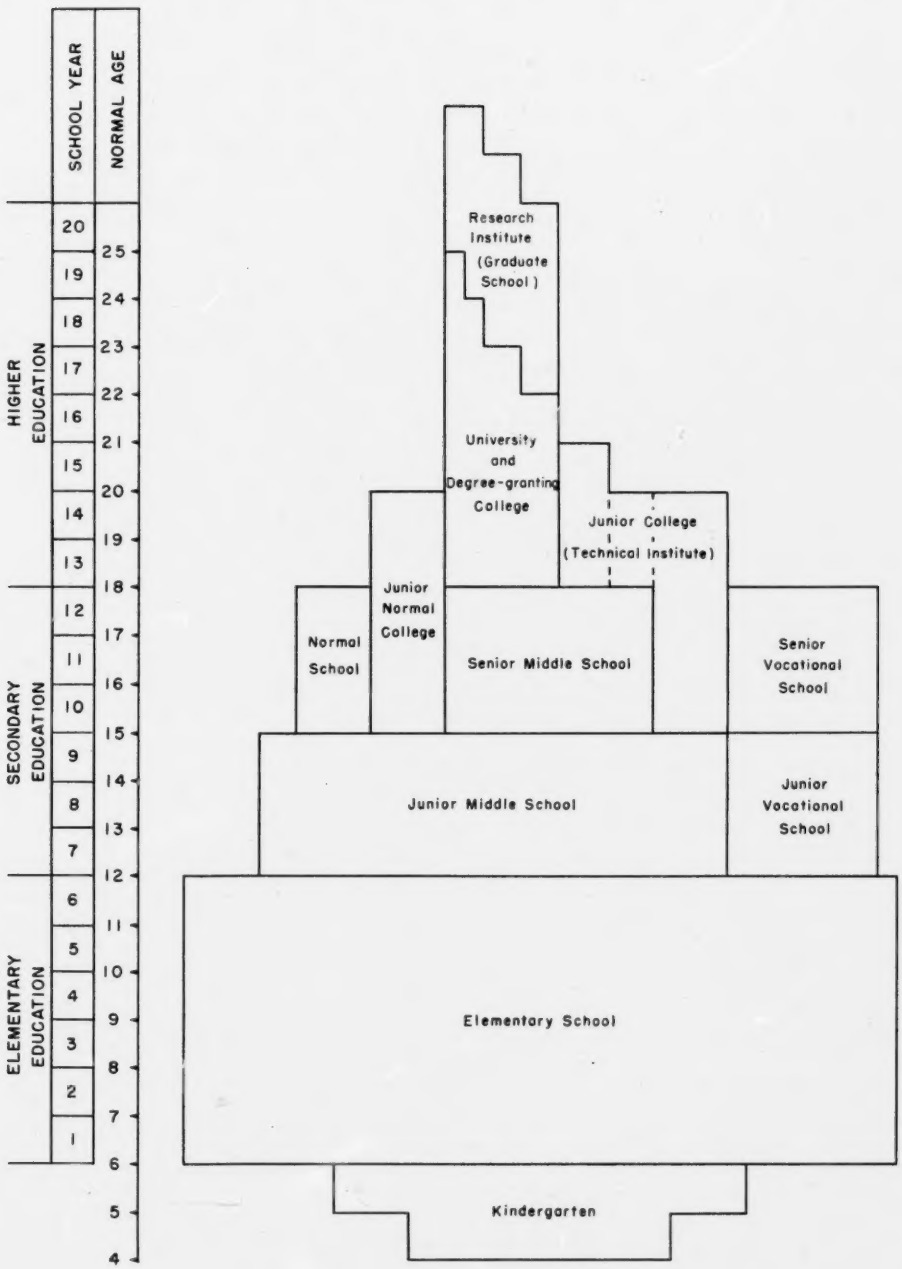
EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM IN TAIWAN



T A I W A N [1]

I. OVERVIEW OF THE EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM

The current educational system in Taiwan is a continuation and further development of the system existing on the Chinese mainland prior to the Communist takeover in 1949, rather than an outgrowth of the system left behind by the Japanese at the end of their 50-year control of the island between 1895 and the close of World War II. The present school system retains essentially the structure established in China in the 1920's during a period of considerable American influence in the educational field. It consists of a basic 16-year cycle from first grade through college graduation, organized in the 6-3-3-4 pattern frequently encountered in this country (see chart).

The 6-year elementary school, for children aged 6 to 12, represents the present limit of compulsory education. At the secondary education level, schools of two types exist: (1) regular (academic) schools, and (2) various kinds of vocational schools (including normal schools). Both types of schools consist of a 3-year junior secondary cycle and a 3-year senior secondary cycle. The regular (academic) secondary schools are called "middle" schools; those of the lower cycle (7th through 9th grades) are referred to as "junior middle schools", and those of the upper cycle (10th through 12th grades) are referred to as "senior middle schools". The vocational secondary schools are identified by nomenclature designating their specific specialties (e.g., junior agricultural vocational school, senior industrial vocational school, senior normal school).

In the elementary and junior middle schools, all students follow the same standardized curriculum drawn up by committees established by the Ministry of Education (see Table 1). At the senior middle school level, on the other hand, a student must choose and follow one of two differentiated "majors", either

[1] Prepared by Robert Barendson

TABLE 1
COURSE OF STUDY FOR JUNIOR MIDDLE SCHOOL STUDENTS
(In Hours per Week)

Subject	First Year		Second Year		Third Year	
	1st Sem.	2nd Sem.	1st Sem.	2nd Sem.	1st Sem.	2nd Sem.
Chinese	6	6	6	6	6	6
Foreign Language (English)	3-4	3-4	3-4	3-4	4-5	4-5
Citizenship	2	2	2	2	2	2
History	2	2	2	2	2	2
Geography	2	2	2	2	2	2
Mathematics	3-4	3-4	3-4	3-4	3-4	3-4
Physics and Chemistry			3-4	3-4	3-4	3-4
Natural History	3	3				
Physiology & Hygiene			2	2		
Physical Education	2	2	2	2	2	2
Music	2	2	1	1	1	1
Fine Art	2	2	1	1	1	1
Industrial Arts (Home Ec. for Girls)	2	2	2	2	2	2
Scouting	1	1	1	1	1	1
Electives					4	4
TOTAL	30-32	30-32	30-33	30-33	29-36	29-36

TABLE 2
COURSE OF STUDY FOR SENIOR MIDDLE
SCHOOL STUDENTS MAJORING IN SOCIAL STUDIES
(In Hours per Week)

Subject	First Year		Second Year		Third Year	
	1st Sem.	2nd Sem.	1st Sem.	2nd Sem.	1st Sem.	2nd Sem.
Chinese	5-6	5-6	6	6	6	6
Foreign Language (English)	5-6	5-6	6	6	6	6
Citizenship	2	2	2	2		
Three People's Principles					2	2
History	2	2	2	2	2	2
Geography	2	2	2	2	2	2
Mathematics	4	4	4	4	4	4
Physics					3	3
Chemistry			3	3		
Biology	3	3				
Physical Education	2	2	2	2	2	2
Music	1	1	1	1		
Fine Art	1	1	1	1		
Industrial Arts (Home Ec. for Girls)	2	2	2	2		
Military Training	2	2	2	2	2	2
Electives			2	2	2-7	2-7
TOTAL	31-33	31-33	33-35	33-35	31-36	31-36

TABLE 3
COURSE OF STUDY FOR SENIOR MIDDLE
SCHOOL STUDENTS MAJORING IN SCIENCE
(In Hours per Week)

Subject	First Year		Second Year		Third Year	
	1st Sem.	2nd Sem.	1st Sem.	2nd Sem.	1st Sem.	2nd Sem.
Chinese	5-6	5-6	5	5	5	5
Foreign Language (English)	5-6	5-6	5	5	5	5
Citizenship	2	2	2	2		
Three People's Principles					2	2
History	2	2	2	2		
Geography	2	2	2	2		
Mathematics	4	4	5	5	6	6
Physics					6	6
Chemistry			5	5		
Biology	3	3				
Physical Education	2	2	2	2	2	2
Music	1	1	1	1		
Fine Art	1	1	1	1		
Industrial Arts (Home Ec. for Girls)	2	2	2	2		
Military Training	2	2	2	2	2	2
Electives			2	2	3-8	3-8
TOTAL	31-33	31-33	34-36	34-36	31-36	31-36

(1) social studies or (2) science, and concentrate somewhat greater time on the courses in his "major" field (see Tables 2 and 3). Broadly speaking, however, all graduates of Chinese middle schools have been exposed to a curriculum which is rather strong in mathematics and at least the basic theoretical aspects of several natural sciences. They have also studied English for several hours a week in each of the 6 secondary school years.

The curriculums in the various junior vocational schools cover about the same spread of academic subjects as those in the "academic" junior middle schools, but spend less time on most of these subjects. Curriculums in senior vocational schools vary widely from one to another specialty, but tend to have much less social studies content and less work in the natural sciences. It should be noted that the junior vocational schools are being gradually eliminated as a step toward the planned introduction of a standardized 9-year compulsory education system.

At the higher educational level, the basic degree course, open to graduates of senior middle and vocational schools who compete successfully in a national entrance exam, is a 4-year program leading to a bachelor's degree. A few programs for the bachelor's degree require 5 years of classroom study or a 5th year consisting of practical working experience. In the fields of dentistry and medicine, 6 and 7 years respectively (including a year of internship) are usually required for the first professional degree. Master's degrees require two years of study beyond the bachelor's, and doctoral degrees a minimum of 3 additional years beyond the master's.

In addition to degree courses, institutions of higher education in Taiwan offer a variety of non-degree courses. They vary from 2 to 5 years in length, but are usually of either 3 or 5 years' duration. These courses, offered mainly in separate non-degree-granting institutions, are highly specialized and are designed as terminal programs of a vocational-technical

type; their graduates normally do not transfer to complete degree programs at other institutions. For admissions officers in the U.S., these courses present particular problems which will be discussed in the following section.

II. SPECIAL PROBLEMS

Apart from the problems of evaluating the quality of individual higher educational institutions and interpreting the collegiate grading system (both of which will be taken up separately below), the educational system in Taiwan confronts an American admissions officer with relatively few complexities. As previously indicated, however, care must be taken in identifying the various non-degree programs offered by institutions of higher education and the level at which they are offered.

The basic difficulty arises from the fact that whereas many of the non-degree courses admit only graduates of the senior middle or vocational schools (i.e., students who have completed 12 years of prior schooling), an even larger number of non-degree courses are open to students who have completed only junior middle or vocational school (9 years of previous schooling). In general, the 3-year non-degree courses follow 12 years of prior schooling, and the 5-year non-degree courses follow only 9 years of prior schooling. In some instances, the same institution may offer both of these types of courses. Thus it is important, in dealing with applications from Taiwan, to establish (through explicit statements on the college transcript or through examination of secondary school records) whether the student in question had completed senior or junior middle or vocational school before enrolling in his course at a collegiate institution.

It should also be noted that English names used by higher educational institutions in Taiwan often do not make it clear whether the institution is a degree-granting institution or not. All institutions using the name "University" grant at

least a first degree, but some institutions using the name "College" do not. The word "Institute" may appear in the English name of either a degree-granting or non-degree-granting institution. Thus one must look beyond the terminology of the English letterhead to determine the status of an institution relative to the conferring of degrees.

Graduate education in Taiwan is another area in which terminology raises problems. The graduate departments of Chinese universities are usually referred to in the educational literature and on transcripts as "Research Institutes". Each of the 10 institutions in Taiwan which offer graduate work has at least one "Research Institute", and one institution (Taiwan National University) has 28 units of this kind. Viewed collectively, the "Research Institutes" of a university constitute its graduate school.

It is at the graduate education level, also, that the educational facilities in Taiwan are the most limited. Although master's degrees are offered at 10 institutions, and in nearly 50 different fields, only two institutions offer the doctoral degree, and each of these offers the degree in only one field. Thus most Chinese students seeking this highest academic degree must look for opportunities to continue their studies abroad.

III. QUALITY FACTORS

The number of higher educational institutions in Taiwan has grown very rapidly in the last decade. As late as the 1959-60 school year, there were only 22 civilian institutions on the island. By January 1965, the figure had nearly doubled, reaching a total of 42. In addition, there were at that time 13 higher educational institutions operating under the auspices of military and (in one case) police authorities, but recognized by the Ministry of Education as being of collegiate status. Of this total of 55 institutions, 31 (including 10 in the military-

police category) are degree-granting institutions, and the remaining 24 do not confer degrees. Among the 25 institutions which have attained collegiate status in the last five years, the overwhelming majority (19) were established as non-degree-granting institutions and still remain in that category. Many of the newer institutions offer only the 5-year non-degree course for junior secondary school graduates, which has become increasingly emphasized in recent years.[1]

Since nearly half of all the collegiate institutions have attained that status in the last 5 years, it is not surprising that quality varies considerably from one institution to another, and that some of the newer institutions are relatively weak.

It is generally acknowledged that all of the eight public universities (including both national and provincial institutions) have high standards. Several of the other public institutions, including particularly the Provincial Maritime College, the Provincial Institute of Agriculture, the Provincial Taipei Institute of Technology, and the National Academy of Arts, are widely regarded as being institutions of good quality in their respective specialized fields. Among the private institutions, perhaps only Tunghai University is presently fully comparable to the leading public universities, but the relatively new Fu Jen University and the College of Chinese Culture are developing rapidly along broad lines. The remainder of the private institutions offer mainly narrower programs, but some of them (e.g., Soochow University Law School, Taipei Medical College, Tatung College of Engineering, and Tamkang College of Arts and Sciences) are well regarded in their own specialties.

Little data is available regarding standards at the military

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[1]For a complete list of the 55 institutions, giving the various programs offered, degrees conferred, and other descriptive data, see Robert D. Barendsen, Higher Educational Institutions in Taiwan (Washington: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1966).

institutions. The three service academies are patterned after U.S. models and are apparently of good quality, and the National Defense Medical College is a well-equipped and highly regarded institution in the field of medical education.

IV. GRADING SYSTEMS

Not all of the institutions of higher education in Taiwan use the same grading system. Some institutions use numerical grades, and others use letter grades only. Most transcripts, however, indicate the relationship between letter and numerical grades. The most common system is one in which 60 is the passing grade. In this system the following letter-number grade relationships exist:

A = 80 - 100
B = 70 - 79
C = 60 - 69

In translating these grades into a system more similar to the usual U.S. pattern, American admission officers use various formulas. Where numerical grades are given, some admissions officers count those between 85 and 100 as A's, those between 75 and 84 as B's, those between 65 and 74 as C's, and those between 60 and 64 as D's. This system, while admittedly somewhat arbitrary, would seem basically fair and justifiable in most instances. In any case, in considering candidates for graduate admission, it would seem desirable to look for an overall grade average that would fall in the upper part of what the specific institution describes as its "B" range--i.e., in at least the upper 70's for those institutions using the system described above.

V. RECOMMENDATIONS

Participants in the workshop drafted and adopted recommendations concerning the placement of students from Taiwan seeking

to enter American institutions. These recommendations suggest guidelines for the placement of students who have reached each of several "critical junctures" in the Taiwan educational system. A "critical juncture" is a point at which a student has completed a certain cycle, or a degree or non-degree program of studies, and may therefore be applying to continue his studies abroad.

A. Juncture at which admission to U.S. higher educational institutions may be requested.

1. Graduation from senior middle school; 12 years total schooling. The curriculum of the senior middle school is divided into two specializations: (1) social studies, and (2) science. This was effective as of 1962. The general level of preparation would essentially be equivalent to that of a secondary school graduate in the United States. The science specialization is somewhat stronger in the areas of math and science. Graduates of either specialization should generally be admitted as a beginning freshman.
2. Graduation from senior vocational and normal schools; 12 years total schooling. Generally graduates from these schools should not be considered for admission into an academic degree program. However, some institutions which offer specialized programs related to the curriculums of these schools may want to give consideration to these applicants.
3. Graduation from a 3-year collegiate program entered upon completion of grade 12; 15 years total schooling. Generally, students who have completed this 3-year program may be granted transfer credit up to two years.
4. Graduation from a 5-year program entered upon completion of grade 9; 14 years total schooling. Generally, students who have completed this five-year program may be granted transfer credit up to one year.

5. Graduation from a 2-year collegiate program entered upon completion of grade 12; 14 years total schooling.
6. Graduation from a bachelor's degree program; 16 or more years total schooling.
   a. Generally, a bachelor's degree from Taiwan should be treated as the equivalent of a bachelor's degree from an accredited institution in the United States. More specifically, acceptance and level of placement would be determined by (1) quality of the institution attended, (2) the quality of the academic record, and (3) the proposed field of study.
   b. There are specific programs which require five, six, or seven years for a bachelor's degree. Examples would be five-year programs in architecture, law, pharmacy, teacher education, and agriculture education; six-year programs in dentistry; and seven-year programs in medicine.
   c. A candidate presenting the six-year bachelor's degree in dentistry or the seven-year bachelor's degree in medicine may be considered to have completed professional courses beyond the bachelor's degree equivalent, but should not be considered as having the equivalent of the professional degree in the United States. The amount of additional credit, if any, should be determined by the receiving institution in the light of the applicant's educational objective. It should be noted that for these two fields of study there are no graduate programs available in Taiwan.
7. Graduation from a master's degree program; 18 or more years total schooling. Generally, a master's degree from Taiwan should be treated as the equivalent of a master's degree from an accredited institution in the United States. More specifically, acceptance and placement would be determined by (1) quality of the institution attended,

(2) the quality of the academic record, and (3) the proposed field of study.

B. Additional considerations desirable to include in qualifications:

1. Evidence of satisfactory proficiency in English.
2. A minimum overall grade average of 75 per cent in the academic subjects. (If grades are given only in letters, a B average as given by most institutions in Taiwan would be comparable to the 75 per cent).
3. Standardized test scores. The College Board Scholastic Aptitude Test (SAT) for undergraduates and the Aptitude Test of the Graduate Record Examination are suggested for graduates. Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL) is suggested to measure English proficiency.

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